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LIII

Essential Uses of the Moods  
In Greek and Latin

SET FORTH IN

PARALLEL ARRANGEMENT.

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By R. P. KEEP, Ph.D.

Jan 1881. S.







THE  
*M. Kellogg*  
ESSENTIAL USES OF THE MOODS  
*IN GREEK AND LATIN*

SET FORTH IN  
PARALLEL ARRANGEMENT.

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*Εὐμνημόνευτα ὅσα τάξιν τινὰ ἔχει.*

ARISTOTLE, *περὶ μνήμης.*

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P R E F A C E.

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THE classification of sentences, upon which the treatment of the Moods in this pamphlet is based, is that of the English Public School Latin Primer: it is compactly exhibited in the Analysis on page v. The aim of the Editor has been to describe, clearly and accurately, in language not too technical, the actual uses of the moods in Latin and Greek; and he has been especially on his guard against the danger of warping or misrepresenting the frequency of any usage for the sake of a more complete parallelism. A Parallel Syntax is not less instructive for the divergences of idiom which it discloses, than for the coincidences which it illustrates.

Experienced teachers best realize how often, after much attention given to the subject, even good scholars show themselves unable to recognize and distinguish the common, essentially different uses of the moods. And yet the subject is not hopelessly obscure, and it is so vitally important that, in its outlines at least, it should be grasped by every scholar.

The points which have received particular attention, and in the statement of which great pains have been taken, are the following: to sharply distinguish between the uses of the moods in inde-



## PREFACE.

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pendent and dependent sentences ; to show how the uses of the moods in substantive clauses (in their three varieties) are affected by subordination (in *Oratio Obliqua*) ; to set forth the nature of the fourfold classification of conditional sentences ; to explain what is meant by a general or indefinite condition ; and to unfold the important analogy between the uses of the moods in indefinite conditional, and in temporal clauses.

Acknowledgment of important obligations is due to the Rev. HERBERT W. SNEYD-KYNNERSLEY'S "Parallel Syntax of Greek and Latin." This publication, issued December, 1877, appeared only a few months later than the "Parallel Rules of Greek and Latin Syntax," of the second part of which this pamphlet is a revised and greatly changed edition. Valuable aid has also been derived from Mr. ARTHUR SIDGWICK'S "Introduction to Greek Prose Composition," and the various Latin and Greek Grammars have been freely drawn upon.

Suggestions from teachers who may use the pamphlet will be most welcome.

ROBERT P. KEEP.

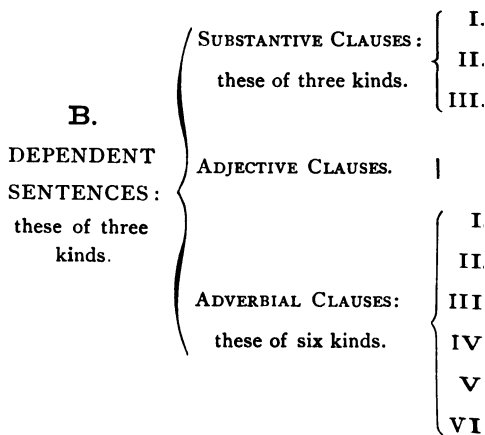
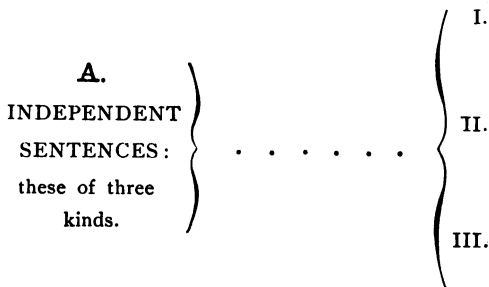
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# CLASSIFICATION

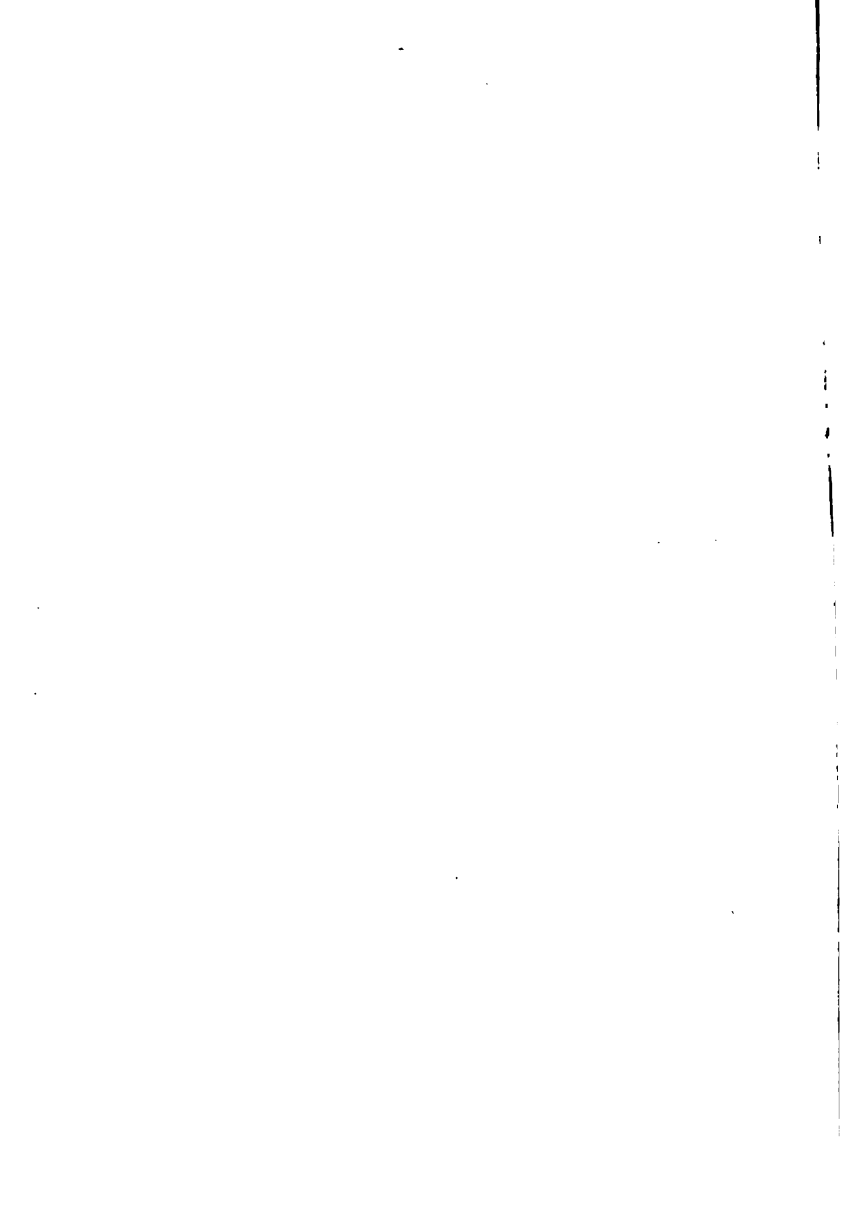
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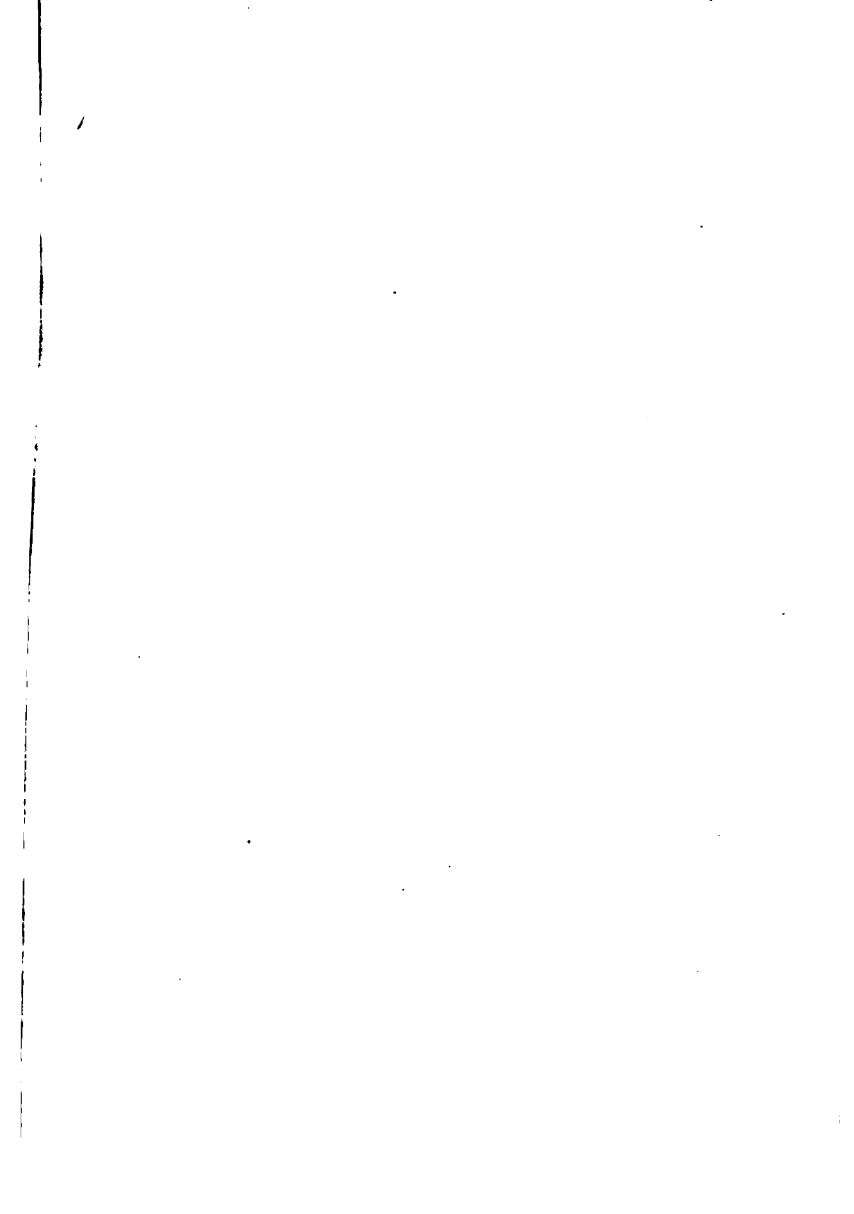


# OF SENTENCES.

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STATEMENT. (Declarative Sentence.)	{	1. Positive Assertion. 2. Qualified Assertion.
QUESTION. (Interrogative Sentence.)	{	1. Question. (Single or Double.) 2. Deliberative or Dubitative Question.
COMMAND. (Imperative Sentence.)	{	1. Command. 2. Exhortation. 3. Wish.
INDIRECT STATEMENT. INDIRECT QUESTION. INDIRECT REQUEST.	}	These are all varieties of Indirect Quotation, or <i>Oratio Obliqua</i> .
RELATIVE CLAUSES. FINAL. CONSECUTIVE. CAUSAL. CONDITIONAL. CONCESSIVE. TEMPORAL.	}	Very frequently in Greek, and less commonly in Latin, a participle may be the equivalent of a relative clause, or of an adverbial clause in each of its varieties.





# SYNTAX OF

## A. — USES OF MOODS IN

### L A T I N.

Direct  
Statement.

1.

1. Direct statement is made by the indicative.

**Homo vēnit.**

The man came.

Potential  
Subjunctive.

2. Qualified or modest assertion is made by the present or perfect subjunctive.

**Velim, voluerim.**

I would like.

**Veniat, vēnerit.**

He may come, he may have come.

NOTE. — The imperfect subjunctive, in this use, implies what cannot be.

**vellem**, cf. *ἡβουλόμην ἂν*.

I could wish.

(1)

# THE MOODS.



## INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

### GREEK.

Direct  
Statement.

1.

1. Direct statement is made by the indicative.

*ὁ ἀνὴρ ἦλθεν.*

REM. — Emphatic denial is made by the (aor.) subjunctive, or by the future indicative preceded by οὐ μή.

*οὐ μὴ παύσωμαι.*

I will never cease.

Potential  
Optative.

2. Qualified or modest assertion is made by the optative with ἄν (neg. οὐ).

*βουλοίμην ἄν.*

*ἔχθοι ἄν.*



Direct  
Question.  
**2.**

1. Questions (single or double) are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, or, rarely, are indicated by the mark of interrogation (?), and employ the indicative.

**Quid vīs?**

What do you want?

**Ubi nam habitas?**

Where do you dwell?

REM.—**Ne** (enclitic), appended to the emphatic word, asks for information; **nonne** expects the answer *yes*; **num** expects the answer *no*.

Doubtful  
Question.

2. In questions implying doubt as to the possibility or propriety of an action (dubitative or deliberative questions), the subjunctive is used (in all tenses).

**Quid faciam?**

What am I to do?

**Quid de eo homine dicam?**

What am I to say concerning this man?

Direct  
Question.  
2.

1. Questions (single or double) are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, or are indicated by the mark of interrogation ( ; ), and employ the indicative.

τί θέλεις ;

ποῦ οἰκεῖς ;

ἦλθες ;

Did you come ?

REM. — Common interrogative particles are: **ἄρα** and **ἦ**, these ask for information ; **οὐ**, **οὐκουν**, **ἄλλο τι** (**ἦ**), **πῶς οὐ**, expect the answer *yes* ; **μή**, in a question, expects the answer *no*.

Doubtful  
Question.

2. In questions implying doubt as to the possibility or propriety of an action (dubitative or deliberative questions), the first, sometimes the third, person of the subjunctive is used (neg. **μή**).

τί ποιήσω ;

τί εἶπω περὶ ἐκείνου τοῦ ἀνδρός ;

NOTE. — The subjunctive of doubt is frequently joined with **βούλει**, **θέλεις**, κ. τ. λ.

βούλει	}	ἀπίωμεν ;
βούλεσθε		
θέλεις		
θέλετε		

Do you wish we should go away ?

**Direct  
Command.**

**3.**

1. Command is expressed by the imperative mood.

**Curre, currite.**

Run.

**Fac hoc.**

Do this.

NOTE.—The second and third persons of the present subjunctive are frequently used to express command.

REM.—Prohibition, or negative command, is expressed in three ways:—

(a) by **ne** with perfect subjunctive.

**Ne hoc fēceris.**

Do not do this.

(b) by **noli** or **nolite** with infinitive.

**Noli (nolite) hoc facere.**

(c) by **cave ne** or **cavete ne** with present subjunctive.

**Cave ne hoc facias.**

NOTE.—We cannot say **ne fac** or **ne facias**.

**Exhortation.**

2. Exhortation is expressed by the first plural of the subjunctive (**neg. ne**).

**Eamus.**

Let us go.

**Wish.**

3. Wish, if attainable, is expressed by the primary tenses of the subjunctive: if not, by the secondary tenses of the subjunctive (**neg. ne**).

**His Di gratiam referant!**

These may the Gods requite!

**Utinam tum tibi adfuissem!**

Would that I had then been present.

**Utinam Cyrus viveret!**

Would that Cyrus were alive!

(5)

Direct  
Command.

3.

1. Command is expressed by the imperative mood : by the present imperative, if the command is general ; by the aorist imperative, if it is particular.

*σπούδαζε.*

Be diligent (always).

*ποίησον τοῦτο.*

Do this (particular thing).

REM. — Prohibition, or negative command, is expressed by μή with the present imperative, if the prohibition is general : by μή with the second (rarely third) singular or plural aorist subjunctive, if the prohibition is particular.

*μὴ κλέπτε.*

Do not steal (at all).

*μὴ κλέψῃς.*

Leave off stealing.

Exhortation.

2. Exhortation is expressed by the first plural of the subjunctive (neg. μή).

*ἴωμεν.*

Wish.

3. Wish, conceived as attainable, is expressed by the optative (neg. μή) : as unattainable, by the past tenses of the indicative with εἶθε or εἰ γάρ, or by the aorist ὤφελον with an infinitive.

*Τούτους μὲν οἱ θεοὶ ἀποτίσαιντο.*

*Εἶθε σοι τότε συνεγενόμην.*

*\*Ὦφελε μὲν Κῦρος ζῆν (Debuit Cyrus vivere !).*

## B.—USES OF MOODS IN

### LATIN.

<p>Classifica- tion of Tenses. 4.</p>	<p>Tenses are classed as Primary and Secondary. Primary: present, perfect definite, future, and future perfect. Secondary: imperfect, perfect indefinite, pluperfect.</p> <p>In Latin, we have sequence of <i>tense</i>; that is, the tense of the subordinate clause corresponds to that of the principal sentence.</p>		
<p>Sequence of Tenses. 5.</p>	<p>Primary tenses regularly follow primary; secondary tenses regularly follow secondary.</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Da mihi illum librum ut accipiam.</b> Give me that book that I may take it.</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Illum librum mihi dedit ut acciperem.</b> He gave me that book that I might take it.</p>		
<p>Classifica- tion of Substantive Clauses. 6.</p>	<p>Substantive clauses, or clauses which are the subject or the object of some verb, are classified as follows :</p> <table style="width: 100%; border: none;"> <tr> <td style="width: 60%;"> <p>I. Indirect Statement. II. Indirect Question. III. Indirect Request.</p> </td><td style="width: 40%; vertical-align: middle;"> <p>} All forms of Indirect Quotation, or <b>Oratio Obliqua.</b></p> </td></tr> </table> <p style="text-align: center;">(7)</p>	<p>I. Indirect Statement. II. Indirect Question. III. Indirect Request.</p>	<p>} All forms of Indirect Quotation, or <b>Oratio Obliqua.</b></p>
<p>I. Indirect Statement. II. Indirect Question. III. Indirect Request.</p>	<p>} All forms of Indirect Quotation, or <b>Oratio Obliqua.</b></p>		

## DEPENDENT SENTENCES.

### GREEK.

#### Classifica- tion of Tenses.

4.

Tenses are classed as Primary and Secondary. Primary: present, perfect, future, and future perfect. Secondary: imperfect, aorist, and pluperfect.

In Greek, we have sequence of *moods*: the subjunctive, in all its tenses, is regarded as primary; the optative, in all its tenses, is regarded as secondary,—hence called also historical subjunctive.

#### Sequence of Moods.

5.

The subjunctive is the regular attendant of primary tenses; the optative, of secondary.

δός μοι ἐκείνο τὸ βιβλίον ἵνα λάβω.

ἔδωκέ μοι ἐκείνο τὸ βιβλίον ἵνα λάβοιμι.

#### Classifica- tion of Substantive Clauses.

6.

Substantive clauses, or clauses which are the subject or the object of some verb, are classified as follows:

- |                        |  |
|------------------------|--|
| I. Indirect Statement. | } All forms of<br>Indirect Quotation,<br>or<br>Oratio Obliqua. |
| II. Indirect Question. |  |
| III. Indirect Request. |  |

**Oratio  
Obliqua.**

REM. 1. — Indirect quotation, or **Oratio Obliqua**, occurs whenever another person's thought is reported, but not his words. The thought may have been (originally) expressed (in direct discourse): as a declaration; as a question; as a command or request. When reported, it will usually follow a verb of *feeling, thinking, or declaring*, and will appear as: indirect statement; indirect question; or indirect request.

REM. 2. — Substantive clauses have been defined as clauses which (like a substantive) are the subject or object of some verb. They generally stand as the object of a verb (of *feeling, thinking, or declaring*); in which case they are called object-clauses.

Some verbs which are not transitive — that is, which do not govern an object-accusative, or even a dative or an objective genitive — may take an object-clause. In such cases, it may stand as a cognate-accusative, repeating the idea contained in the verb, or as an object of the action which the verb implies.

**Indirect  
Statement:  
how  
expressed.  
7.**

1. The regular form of the indirect statement (that is, of its main proposition) after verbs of *feeling, thinking, and declaring*, is the accusative with the infinitive.

**Dixit Xenophontem imperatorem esse.**

He said that Xenophon was general.

**Oratio  
Obliqua.**

REM. 1. — Indirect quotation, or **Oratio Obliqua**, occurs whenever another person's thought is reported, but not his words. The thought may have been (originally) expressed (in direct discourse): as a declaration; as a question; as a command or request. When reported, it will usually follow a verb of *feeling, thinking, or declaring*, and will appear as: indirect statement; indirect question; or indirect request.

REM. 2. — Substantive clauses have been defined as clauses which (like a substantive) are the subject or object of some verb. They generally stand as the object of a verb (of *feeling, thinking, or declaring*); in which case they are called object-clauses.

Some verbs which are not transitive — that is, which do not govern an object-accusative, or even a dative or an objective genitive — may take an object-clause. In such cases, it may stand as a cognate-accusative, repeating the idea contained in the verb, or as an object of the action which the verb implies.

**Indirect  
Statement:  
how  
expressed.  
7.**

1. A regular form of the indirect statement (that is, of its main proposition) after verbs of *feeling, thinking, and declaring*, is the accusative with the infinitive; but the nominative usually takes the place of the accusative when it would repeat the subject of the principal verb.

"Εφη Ξενοφῶντα στρατηγὸν εἶναι.



Indirect  
Statement:  
how  
expressed.

REM. — Verbs of *hoping, promising, and undertaking* take the future infinitive with the subject-accusative.

**Promisit se venturum esse.**

He promised that he would come.

2. After impersonal verbs such as *it happens, it is expedient, it remains, it follows* (e. g. **accidit, fieri solet, expedit, restat, sequitur, &c.**), — the substantive clause takes the form of **ut** with the subjunctive.

**Expedit ut Romae sim.**

It is expedient that I be at Rome.

Indirect  
Statement:  
how  
expressed.

NOTE.—By the use of the nominative or accusative, the Greek regularly indicates whether the subject of the infinitive is the same as that of the principal verb, or not.

Ἔφη αὐτός, οὐκ ἐκεῖνον, στρατηγεῖν.

He said that he himself, not that one, was commander.

REM.—Verbs of *promising* take the future infinitive; verbs of *hoping*, more commonly the aorist infinitive, with *ἄν*.

ὑπέσχετό μοι τοῦτο ποιῆσειν.

ἐλπίζω σε ταῦτα ποιῆσαι ἄν.

2. Equally common in Greek with the accusative with infinitive after verbs of *saying*, *thinking*, &c., is the substantive clause introduced by *ὅτι* or *ὥς*. The verb of the substantive clause takes the indicative after a primary tense; the optative (generally) after a secondary tense.

οἶδα ὅτι βασιλεὺς ἀπέθανεν.

I know that the king died.

ᾔδειν ὅτι βασιλεὺς μαχόμενος ἀποθάνοι (ἀπέθανεν).

I knew that the king died fighting.

REM. 1.—The indicative may at any time be employed after a secondary tense when it is desired, for the sake of vividness, to approach the original language of the speaker.

REM. 2.—Of the three common verbs of *saying*, *φημί* regularly takes the infinitive; *λέγω* may take *ὅτι* or *ὥς*; *εἶπον* always takes *ὅτι* or *ὥς*, except when it signifies *bid*.

3. After verbs of emotion, **gaudeo, doleo, &c.**, the substantive clause may be the accusative with the infinitive, but very often takes the form of **quod**, with the indicative.

**Gaudeo quod domum tutus abiit.**

I am glad that he has returned home safe.

**Employment of Mood in Indirect Statement.**  
(Subordinate Clauses.)

**8.**

## *General Principle governing the Employment of Mood in Subordinate Clauses of Indirect Statement.*

Dependent clauses, connected with the main proposition (accusative with infinitive, Rule 7), by the various conjunctions, employ the subjunctive.

REM. — The dependent clauses, the verbs of which thus pass into the subjunctive, may be of the following varieties : —

1. Interrogative clauses (cf. Rule 9), — yet rhetorical questions may employ the infinitive.
2. Imperative clauses.
3. Relative clauses, whether introduced by relatives or relative adverbs.
4. Adverbial clauses in their different varieties (cf. Rule 14).

### DIRECT STATEMENT.

Ego paratus sum : —  
quid *vultis* ? Ne *dubitate* aperte dicere ea quae in animo *habetis*.

### INDIRECT STATEMENT.

[Dixit] se paratum esse : —  
quid *vellent* (1) ? ne *dubitarent* (2) aperte dicere ea quae in animo *haberent* (3).

3. Verbs of *feeling, knowing, judging*, — e. g. αἰσθάνομαι, οἶδα, μέμνημαι, — are more commonly followed by a participle than by the accusative with the infinitive. This participle is called a supplementary participle.

οἶδά σε κακὸν ὄντα.

I know that you are cowardly.

οἶδα κακὸς ὢν.

I know that I am cowardly.

REM. — With the infinitive the meaning is different.

οἶδα κακὸς εἶναι.

I know how to be a coward.

Employ-  
ment of  
Mood in  
Indirect  
Statement  
(after  
ὅτι or ὥς).

8.

*General Principle governing the Employment of Mood in Indirect Statement after ὅτι or ὥς.*

When the tense of the principal verb is secondary, the mood of all the dependent clauses is (usually) changed (in passing from direct to indirect statement) to the optative.

*Direct Statement.*

εἰάν ὑμᾶς ἴδω ἀθύμους, κακὸς ἔσομαι.

If I see you faint-hearted, I shall be cowardly.

*Indirect Statement.*

ἔλεξεν ὅτι, εἰ ἡμᾶς ἴδοι ἀθύμους, κακὸς ἔσοιτο.

He said that, if he should see us faint-hearted, he should be cowardly.

DIRECT STATEMENT.

Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis *faciet*, in eam partem *ibunt* atque ibi *erunt* Helvetii, ubi eos Caesar *constituerit* atque esse *voluerit*: sin bello persequi *perseverabit*, *reminiscere* (inquit) et veteris incommodi populi Romani et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum.

INDIRECT STATEMENT.

Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis *faceret* (4) in eam partem *ituros* atque ibi *futuros* Helvetios, ubi eos Caesar *constituisset* (3) atque esse *voluisset* (3): sin bello persequi *perseveraret* (4) *reminisceretur* (2) et veteris incommodi populi Romani et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum.

NOTE. — The subjunctive of direct statement, modified in tense according to Rule 5, is retained in indirect statement except in the apodosis of conditional sentences, where it becomes future infinitive.

Mood in  
Indirect  
Question.  
9.

Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and particles. The verb of the interrogative clause is regularly in the subjunctive.

Quaeram quis sit.

Quaesivi quis esset.

REM. 1. — The subjunctive is explained on the same principle as the subjunctive of indirect statement.

REM. 2. — Any dependent sentence, though not strictly interrogative, if introduced by an interrogative word, may take the subjunctive.

Quam sis audax, omnes intelligunt.

All know how bold you are.

EXC. — The uniform exception to the above rule is in the case of conditional sentences of the second form, contrary to reality (cf. Rule 21), where the indicatives never change to optatives.

*Direct Statement.*

Εἰ μὴ ὑμεῖς ἦλθετε, ἐπορευόμεθα ἄν.

If you had not come, we should be marching.

*Indirect Statement.*

Ἀπήγγειλεν ὅτι εἰ μὴ ὑμεῖς ἦλθετε, ἐπορευόμεθα ἄν.

He announced that, if you had not come, we should be marching.

REM. — By what may be called the “principle of vividness,” it is common, in Greek, to employ, where we should expect the optative of indirect statement, the original language of the speaker.

ἠπόρουν τί λέγει (instead of λέγοι).

I was at a loss to know what he meant.

Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and particles. After a primary tense, the verb of the interrogative clause suffers no change ; after a secondary tense, it passes regularly into the optative.

Ἐρωτήσω ὅστις ἐστί.

Ἠρόμην ὅστις εἷη.

REM. 1. — The optative is explained on the same principle as the optative of indirect statement. By the “principle of vividness” the original language of the speaker may be employed in the indirect question, after a secondary tense.

REM. 2. — The indirect interrogatives are commonly employed in Greek, in the indirect question, instead of the direct interrogatives: e. g. *ὅπου, ὅπουθεν, ὅποι, ὅπη, ὅποτε, ὅπως, ὅστις, ὅπόσος, ὅποιος, ὅπότερος*, instead of *ποῦ, πόθεν, ποῖ, πῇ, πότε, πῶς, τίς, πόσος, ποῖος, πότερος*.

Mood in  
Indirect  
Question.  
9.

Indirect  
Request.

**10.**

When a command or a request is made to depend upon a verb of requesting, advising, reminding, it becomes an indirect request.

Mood in  
Indirect  
Request.

**11.**

1. Indirect request, after verbs of requesting, advising, and reminding, is regularly expressed by the subjunctive (object-clause) with **ut** or **ne**.

**Te rogo ut hoc facias.**

**Te rogavi ut hoc faceres.**

I ask (asked) you to do this.

**Suadeo (vobis) ut vosmet servetis.**

I advise you to save yourselves.

REM. 3. — The subjunctive is *not* an attendant of the indirect question, in Greek : where we find it, it is the deliberative or dubitative subjunctive. *E.g.*, —

Οὐκ οἶδα πῶς ἀποδρῶ.

I don't know how I am to escape.

The direct question was, —

πῶς ἀποδρῶ ;

How am I to escape ?

which, after a secondary tense, by the principle of indirect discourse, would pass into the optative, —

οὐκ ἤδειν πῶς ἀποδράην,

or, by the "principle of vividness," might remain unchanged :

οὐκ ἤδειν πῶς ἀποδρῶ.

I did not know how I should escape.

Indirect  
Request.  
10.

When a command or a request is made to depend upon a verb of requesting, advising, reminding, it becomes an indirect request.

Mood in  
Indirect  
Request.  
11.

1. Indirect request, after verbs of requesting, advising, and reminding, is regularly expressed, as in English, by the infinitive.

σοῦ δέομαι ταῦτα ποιεῖν.

σοῦ ἐδεήθην ταῦτα ποιεῖν.

συμβουλεύω ὑμῖν σώζεσθαι.



**Mood in  
Indirect  
Request.**

REM. — *Jubeo, veto, cogo, sino*, and sometimes *volo*, are followed by the infinitive.

2. After verbs of fear or caution, the object of apprehension is expressed by **ne** with the subjunctive, when it is feared something will happen ; by **ut** or **ne non**, when it is feared that something will not happen.

**Vereor ne hoc facias.**

I fear that (or lest) you will do this.

**Verebar ut (ne non) hoc faceres.**

I was fearing that (or lest) you should not do this.

REM. — This usage comes under the head of indirect request : because, I fear that = I beg you that not ; and I fear that not = I beg you that. Here, as in Rule 15, the line which separates indirect requests from final clauses cannot always be drawn.

**Adjective  
Clauses.**

**12.**

An adjective clause is one which, like an adjective, qualifies a noun. Relative clauses are adjective clauses, because the relative clause, like an adjective, qualifies the antecedent. But since relative clauses, in Latin, usually convey a purpose, result, cause, condition, or concession, they may modify the *verb* of the principal sentence, and hence may employ the moods in the same way as adverbial clauses.

**Mood in  
Indirect  
Request.**

REM. 1. — Instead of the infinitive, the Greek employs *ὅπως*, with future indicative, after verbs denoting attention, care, effort.

REM. 2. — In the later Greek (*e. g.* of the New Testament), the clause with *ἵνα* and the subjunctive frequently takes the place of the infinitive. In modern Greek, this construction has wholly displaced the infinitive.

2. After verbs of fear or caution, the object of apprehension is expressed by a clause with *μή*, when it is feared something will happen ; with *μή οὐ*, when it is feared something will not happen. After a primary tense, we have the subjunctive ; after a secondary tense, the optative (historical subjunctive).

*φοβοῦμαι μή ταῦτα ποιήσης.*

*έφοβούμην μή οὐ ταῦτα ποιήσεις.*

REM. — This usage comes under the head of indirect request: because, I fear that = I beg you that you may not ; and I fear that you may not = I beg that you may. Here, as in Rule 15, the line between indirect requests and final clauses cannot always be accurately drawn.

**Adjective  
Clauses.**

**12.**

An adjective clause is one which, like an adjective, qualifies a noun. Relative clauses are adjective clauses, because the relative clause, like an adjective, qualifies the antecedent.

## L A T I N.

Mood in  
Relative  
Clauses.

13.

1. A relative clause, when simply adjective, takes its verb in the indicative.

**Vir quem omnes diligunt.**

A man whom all love (= a man loved by all).

2. Relative clauses more usually express purpose, result, cause, concession ; and, in all these cases, require the subjunctive.

**Legationem mittere quae (ut ea) pacem roget.**

To send an embassy to ask peace (purpose).

**Quis tam stultus est qui (ut is) ignoret?**

Who is so simple as not to know (result)?

**Clearchum ad colloquium vocavit qui (cum is) maxime Graecorum honorari videretur.**

He summoned Clearchus to the council, since he seemed to be the most honored of the Greeks (cause).

Adverbial  
Clauses.

14.

Adverbial clauses, or those which modify verbs, are divided into six classes.

- I. Final.
- II. Consecutive.
- III. Causal.

- IV. Conditional.
- V. Concessive.
- VI. Temporal.

## GREEK.

**Mood in  
Relative  
Clauses.**

**13.**

1. Relative clauses regularly require the indicative.

*ἀνὴρ ὃν πάντες φιλοῦσιν.*

2. Relative clauses, not infrequently, as in Latin, express purpose, result, or cause; but even in such cases require the indicative.

*πρεσβείαν πέμπειν ἣτις (or ἥ) ζητήσει εἰρήνην.*

*Τίς οὕτως εὐήθης ὅστις (or rarely ὅς) ἀγνοεῖ;*

*Κλέαρχον σύμβουλον παρεκάλεσε ὃς γε ἐδόκει  
προτιμηθῆναι μάλιστα τῶν Ἑλλήνων.*

**Adverbial  
Clauses.**

**14.**

Adverbial clauses, or those which modify verbs, are divided into six classes.

- |                  |                  |
|------------------|------------------|
| I. Final.        | IV. Conditional. |
| II. Consecutive. | V. Concessive.   |
| III. Causal,     | VI. Temporal.    |

**Final  
Clauses.  
15.**

1. Final clauses are such as denote purpose, — *finis*, “end,” *to the end that*. They are introduced by *ut*, *ne*, *quo* (with comparatives), *quominus* (after words and phrases implying hindrance), and by relative words: they require, in all cases, the subjunctive.

**Pontem rumpit ne transeatis.**

He breaks down the bridge that you may not cross.

**Pontem rupit ne transiretis.**

He broke down the bridge that you might not cross.

NOTE. — The relative or relative adverb, when denoting purpose, may be resolved into *ut* or *ne* with a personal pronoun or a demonstrative word.

2. Various ways of expressing purpose: —

(1.) *ut*, *ne*, *quo*, *quominus*, with subjunctive.

(2.) Future participle active.

(3.) Relative clause with subjunctive.

(4.) Genitive case of gerund, or gerundive, with *causâ*.

(5.) Accusative case of gerund, or gerundive, with *ad*.

(6.) Supine in *um* after verb of motion.

REM. — The infinitive never expresses purpose in prose Latin.

**Final  
Clauses.  
15.**

1. Final clauses are introduced by *ἵνα*, *ὅπως*, *ὥς* (neg. *ἵνα μή*, *ὅπως μή*, *ὥς μή*): they require the subjunctive after a primary, the optative (historical subjunctive) after a secondary tense.

*λύει τὴν γέφυραν ὥς μὴ διαβῇτε.*

*ἔλυε τὴν γέφυραν ὥς μὴ διαβαίητε.*

2. Various ways of expressing purpose:—

- (1.) *ἵνα*, *ὥς*, *ὅπως*, with subjunctive or optative.
- (2.) Future participle, often with *ὥς*.
- (3.) Relative clause, with future indicative.
- (4.) Genitive case of infinitive, with neuter article  
*τοῦ*.
- (5.) *ὅπως*, with future indicative after verbs of effort (cf. Rule **11**, 1, Rem. 1.).
- (6.) The infinitive alone or with *ὥστε*.

REM.—All final clauses, when negative, require *μή*.

### EXAMPLES.

**1. Ibant ut pacem peterent.**

**They were going to beg for peace.**

2. Ibant pacem petituri (not in Cicero).
3. Ibant qui (= ut ii) pacem peterent.
4. Ibant pacem petendi }  
    pacis petendae } causâ (gratia).
5. Ibant ad pacem petendam  
    petendum (rare).
6. Ibant pacem petitum.

**Consecutive  
Clauses.  
16.**

1. Consecutive clauses are such as denote result. They are introduced by **ut** (neg. **ut non**) and **quin** (after negative and interrogative expressions), and require the subjunctive.

**Res tam horribilis erat, ut nemo dormiret.**

The affair was so horrible that no one slept.

**Nemo }  
Ouis }** est quin putet.

There is no one } but thinks.  
Who is there }

2. The relative clause denoting result (*qui* = *ut ego*, *ut tu*, *ut is*, &c.) is especially common in Latin. For this we have the following rule :—

EXAMPLES.

Final  
Clauses.

1. Cf. examples under Rule 15, 1.
2. ἦλθε αἰρήσων τὴν πόλιν.  
He went to take the city.
3. πρεσβείαν πέμπειν ἥτις ἐρεῖ.  
To send an embassy to speak.
4. ἔφαγε τοῦ μὴ λῖμον ἀποθανεῖν.  
He ate in order not to die of hunger.
5. φρόντιζ' ὅπως πράξεις.  
Consider how you may do it.
6. τὴν πόλιν φυλάττειν αὐτοῖς παρέδοσαν.  
We handed over to them the city to guard it.

Consecutive  
Clauses.

16.

1. Consecutive clauses are such as denote result. They are commonly introduced by ὥστε, and generally require the infinitive (neg. μή).

τὸ πρῶγμα ἦν οὕτω δεινὸν ὥστε μὴ κοιμηθῆναι.

The affair was so horrible that one could not sleep.

2. If it is desired to indicate that the result has actually followed (*i. e.* if the fact as a *fact*, rather than as a *result*, is to be emphasized), the indicative is used.



A relative clause expressing some characteristic of an antecedent requires the subjunctive.

**Sunt qui (= tales ut ii) putent.**

There are some who think.

**Causal  
Clauses.  
17.**

Causal clauses express a cause or reason, and are introduced by **quod, quia; cum, quoniam**. The first two of these conjunctions are regularly joined with the indicative; the last two, with the subjunctive. But any causal conjunction may take the subjunctive, when the reason is stated, not as a fact, but simply on another's (or subjectively on one's own) authority.

**In nomine Caesaris gratulatio decreta est quod Gallos vicerat (fact).**

**Socratem insimulaverunt quod juventutem corrumpere.**

They brought (a false) accusation against Socrates, because (as they said) he corrupted the youth.

NOTE. — In a case like this last example, **quod . . . corrumpere** is not only the cause, but also the subject-matter of the charge, and the subjunctive could be explained on the principle stated in Rule 8, Latin and Greek.

REM. — Causal clauses introduced by the relative are common in Latin, and require the subjunctive (**qui = cum ego, cum tu, cum ille, &c.**).

**O vis veritatis quae (cum ea) se defendat!**

O the power of truth to defend (since it defends) itself!

τὸ πρᾶγμα οὕτω δεινὸν ἦν, ὥστε ὁ βασιλεὺς οὐκ  
(not μὴ) ἐκοιμήθη.

The affair was so horrible that the king did not sleep.

Causal  
Clauses.  
17.

Causal clauses express a cause or reason, and are introduced by *ὅτι, ὡς, because, on the ground that; ἐπεί, ἐπειδή, ὅτε, ὁπότε, since;* and by other conjunctions of similar meaning.

They are regularly joined with the indicative; but when the cause is assigned on another's authority, the optative may be used after a secondary tense.

ἐπεὶ ἐμοὶ οὐ θέλετε πείσασθαι, ἐγὼ σὺν ὑμῖν ἔψομαι.

Since you do not choose to obey me, I will follow you.

Κύρον διέβαλλεν ὡς τῷ ἀδελφῷ ἐπιβουλεύει.

He accused Cyrus, on the ground that he was plotting against his brother.

NOTE. — In a case like this last example, *ὡς . . . ἐπιβουλεύει* is not only the alleged cause, but also the subject-matter of the charge, and the optative is accounted for by Rule 8.

REM. — Two other common ways of expressing a cause are : —

1. By a participle.

λέγω τούτου ἕνεκα, βουλόμενος, κ. τ. λ.

This is the reason why I speak, because I wish, &c.

2. By *διὰ* with the infinitive preceded by the neuter article *τό*.

διὰ τὸ ἀγαθὸς εἶναι, τοῦτο ἐποίει.

He used to do this, because he was brave.

Of  
Conditional  
Sentences.

**18.**

A conditional sentence consists of two parts: the conditional clause or *if*-clause, called the Protasis; and the main clause or *then*-clause, called the Apodosis.

The conditional clause is introduced by the conjunctions **si**, **nisi**, or **si non**.

(Cf. Note on opposite page.)

Classifica-  
tion  
under Four  
Forms.

**19.**

Conditional Sentences appear in four forms, the nature of which is indicated by the following names: **Sumptio Dati**, **Sumptio Falsi**, **Sumptio Dandi**, **Sumptio Ficti**.

Of  
Conditional  
Sentences.

18.

A conditional sentence consists of two parts: the conditional clause or *if*-clause, called the Protasis; and the main clause or *then*-clause, called the Apodosis.

The conditional clause is introduced either by  $\epsilon\iota$  or  $\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\nu$  (=  $\epsilon\iota \acute{\alpha}\nu$ ) also written  $\eta\nu$ ,  $\acute{\alpha}\nu$ .  $\epsilon\iota$  may be joined with the indicative or optative;  $\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\nu$  is found only with the subjunctive. The negative of the Protasis is always  $\mu\acute{\eta}$ ,—that of the Apodosis, always  $\omicron\upsilon$ .

NOTE.—The word Protasis (Greek **Πρότασις**, **προτείνω**, to extend) properly means that which is *put forward* or *advanced*. Apodosis (Greek **Ἀπόδοσις**, **ἀποδίδωμι**, to correspond) signifies the *corresponding clause*.

Protasis, then, = *what is advanced*; Apodosis = *the reply*.

*If* you say this, *then* I answer.

(Cf. in German :

Wenn du so sagst, so antworte ich.

Cf. also in Greek, especially in Homer,—

ἔως ὃ ταῦθ' ὄρμαινε . . . ἦλθε δ' Ἀθήνη.

*While* he was debating, . . . *then* came Athena.)

It is very important to notice, that although the Protasis comes first, and calls forth the Apodosis, as a question calls forth an answer, yet that the Apodosis is always the main clause.

Classifica-  
tion  
under Four  
Forms.

19.

Conditional Sentences appear in four forms, the nature of which is indicated by the following names: **Sumptio Dati**, **Sumptio Falsi**, **Sumptio Dandi**, **Sumptio Ficti**.

First form:  
Condition  
assumed as

True.  
20.

I. **Sumptio Dati.** Truth of supposition taken for granted.

Indicative (any tense) in the Protasis ;

Indicative (any tense) in the Apodosis.

**Si adest, bene est.**

If he is present, it is well.

**Si arae sunt, Di quoque sunt.**

If there are altars, there are also Gods.

**Si quid peccas, doles.**

If you commit any sin, you (are sure to) suffer for it.

**Si tonuit, fulguravit quoque.**

If it thundered, it also lightened.

REM. 1 (for Teachers). — In conditions of the first class, the conditional *form* is often rather accidental than essential. The thought would be equally well expressed in case another conjunction — e. g. *because, since, as sure as* — were substituted for *if*. The possibility of such a substitution will be found the best practical test by which conditions of the first form may be recognized. *E. g.* —

**Si arae sunt, Di quoque sunt**

really means, —

Since there are altars, there are also Gods.

**Si tonuit, fulguravit quoque,**

So sure as it has thundered, lightning has preceded.

REM. 2. — A conditional sentence of the first form is generally convertible into a general proposition.

**Si arae sunt, Di quoque sunt**

may be translated, —

Wherever there are altars, there are also Gods.

**Si tonuit, fulguravit quoque,**

Lightning always attends thunder.

First form:  
Condition  
assumed as  
True.  
20.

I. *Sumptio Dati*. Truth of supposition taken for granted.

Indicative (any tense) in the Protasis ;  
Indicative (any tense) in the Apodosis.

*Εἰ πάρεστι, καλῶς ἔχει.*

*Εἰ βωμοὶ εἰσιν, καὶ Θεοὶ εἰσιν.*

*Εἴ τι ἁμαρτάνεις, ἀλγεῖς.*

*Εἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἤστραψεν.*

REM. 1 (for Teachers).—In conditions of the first class (which are probably more common in Greek than in Latin) the conditional *form* is often rather accidental than otherwise. The thought would equally well be expressed by the substitution for *if* of some other conjunction ; e. g. *because, since, as sure as*. The possibility of such a substitution will be found a convenient practical test, by which conditions of the first form may be recognized. *E. g.,—*

*Εἰ βωμοὶ εἰσιν, καὶ Θεοὶ εἰσιν*

really means, —

Since (or where) there are altars, there are also Gods.

*Εἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἤστραψεν,*

So sure as it has thundered, lightning has preceded.

REM. 2. — A conditional sentence of the first form is generally convertible into a general proposition.

*Εἰ βωμοὶ εἰσιν, καὶ Θεοὶ εἰσιν.*

Wherever there are altars, there are also Gods.

*Εἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἤστραψεν.*

Lightning always attends thunder.

Second  
Form:  
Condition  
contrary  
to Fact.  
**21.**

**II. Sumptio Falsi.** Supposition contrary to reality.

Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Protasis ;

Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Apodosis.

**Si adesset, bene esset.**

If he were present, it were well.

**Si quid peccares, doleres.**

If you should commit any sin, you would suffer (for it).

**Si tonuisset, fulgurasset.**

If it had thundered, it would have lightened.

REM. 1. — When the imperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the present : *e. g.* **si adesset** (contrary reality, **non adest**) ; **bene esset** (contrary reality, **non bene est**). When the pluperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the historical perfect, or by the imperfect : *e. g.* **si potuisset** (contrary reality, **non poterat**, or **non potuit**) ; **venisset** (contrary reality, **non vēnit**).

REM. 2. — The indicative, instead of the subjunctive, in the Apodosis, signifies that a thing was certain, or was intended, or ought to be.

**In amplexūs filiae ruebat, nisi lictores obstitissent.**

He would certainly have rushed into his daughter's embrace, had not the lictors prevented.

Second  
Form:  
Condition  
contrary  
to Fact.  
21.

## II. Sumptio Falsi. Supposition contrary to reality.

Past tense of the Indicative in Protasis ;

Past tense of the Indicative with ἄν in Apodosis.

Εἰ παρῆν, καλῶς ἄν εἶχεν.

Εἴ τι ἡμάρτανες, ἤλγεις ἄν.

Εἰ ἐβρόντησεν, ἥστραψεν ἄν.

REM. 1.—When the imperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the present : *e.g.* εἰ παρῆν (contrary reality, οὐ πάρεστι) ; καλῶς ἄν εἶχεν (contrary reality, οὐκ ἔχει καλῶς). When the aorist is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the aorist or by the imperfect : *e.g.* Εἰ ἡδυνήθη (contrary reality, οὐκ ἡδυνήθη or οὐκ ἡδύνατο) ; ἦλθεν ἄν (contrary reality, οὐκ ἦλθεν).

REM. 2.—ἄν is sometimes omitted in the Apodosis of a conditional sentence of the second form, especially with impersonal verbs denoting *obligation, propriety, &c.* ; *e.g.* ἔδει, ἐχρήν, χρήν, &c.

Καλὸν ἦν αὐτῷ, εἰ οὐκ ἐγεννήθη ὁ ἄνθρωπος ἐκεῖνος.

It were (was) good for that man, if he had not been born.

NOTE.—The use of οὐκ instead of μή in the Protasis, in this and similar cases, is explained by the close connection of the negative with the verb, with which it forms one idea. So often,—

οὐ φημι, I deny.

Εἰ φής, ἢ εἰ οὐ φής.



Third  
Form :  
Condition  
Probable.

22.

III. **Sumptio Dandi.** Truth of supposition will be granted. Supposition referring to the future, with present expectation that it will be realized.

Future Indicative (or, for completed action, Future Perfect Indicative) in Protasis ;

Future Indicative in Apodosis.

**Si aderit, bene erit.**

If he be (shall be) present, it will be well.

**Si quid peccaveris, dolebis.**

If you shall have committed any sin, you shall suffer (for it).

REM. — This variety of condition, it will be observed, shows the same use of the moods (indicative in both clauses) as the first form, from which it is here distinguished only for the sake of symmetry (for comparison with the Greek).

Fourth  
Form :  
Condition  
Imaginary.

23.

IV. **Sumptio Ficti.** Of that which is imaginary. Supposition referring to the future, but without present probability.

Present subjunctive (perfect subjunctive for completed action) in Protasis ;

Present subjunctive in Apodosis.

**Si adsit, bene sit.**

If he <sup>is</sup> ~~was~~ present, it would be well.

**Si quid pecces,            }  
                                  peccaveris, } doleas.**

If you committed any fault, you would suffer (for it).



Third  
Form:  
Condition  
Probable.  
22.

III. **Sumptio Dandi.** Truth of supposition will be granted. Supposition referring to the future, with present expectation that it will be realized.

Subjunctive with *εάν* (*ἤν*, *ᾶν*) in Protasis;

Future Indicative, or Imperative, or some other expression implying futurity, in Apodosis.

*Ἐὰν παρῇ, καλῶς ἔξει.*

*Ἐάν τι ἀμάρτης, ἀλγησεις.*

REM.—The subjunctive with *εάν* in the Protasis often gives place, for greater vividness, to the future indicative with *εἰ*. In this case the condition becomes identical, in form and meaning, with one of the first form.

*Εἰ πάρεσται, καλῶς ἔξει.*

Fourth  
Form:  
Condition  
Imaginary.  
23.

IV. **Sumptio Ficti.** Of that which is imaginary. Supposition referring to the future, but without present probability.

Optative in the Protasis;

Optative with *ᾶν* in the Apodosis.

*Εἰ παρείη, καλῶς ἂν ἔχοι.*

*Εἴ τι ἀμαρτάνοις, ἀλγοίης ᾶν.*

## L A T I N.

Mixed  
Forms.  
24.

Mixed forms are much less common in Latin than in Greek. Yet we find examples like the following:—

**Dies deficiet (3), si velim (4) causam dicere.**

Day would (will) fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause.

Condition  
Implied.  
25.

The condition is sometimes involved in a participle, or in some other word, and sometimes is merely implied.

**Non potestis, omnia voluptate dirigentes, virtutem retinere.**

You cannot, if you arrange everything according to pleasure, retain your manhood.

**Pace tuâ, dixerim.**

I would say it, by your leave.

**Vellem.**

I could wish.

**Velim.**

I should wish.

Mixed  
Forms.  
24.

To express various shades of meaning, the third and fourth forms are sometimes blended, — the Protasis taking one, the Apodosis the other.

Ἐὰν παρῇ (3), καλῶς ἂν εἶχαι (4).

If he be present, it would be well.

Εἰ παρείη (4), καλῶς ἔξει (3).

Condition  
Implied.  
25.

The condition is frequently involved in a participle, or is simply implied.

$$\epsilon\acute{\chi}\omega\nu = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \epsilon\acute{\imath} \tau\iota \epsilon\acute{\chi}\epsilon\iota\varsigma. \\ \epsilon\acute{\alpha}\nu \tau\iota \epsilon\acute{\chi}\eta\varsigma. \\ \epsilon\acute{\imath} \tau\iota \epsilon\acute{\chi}\epsilon\iota\varsigma. \\ \epsilon\acute{\imath} \tau\iota \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \epsilon\acute{\imath}\chi\epsilon\varsigma. \\ \epsilon\acute{\sigma}\chi\epsilon\varsigma. \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$$

ἡβουλόμην ἂν (εἰ ἡδυνάμην).

βουλοίμην ἂν (εἰ δυναίμην).

## L A T I N.

General or  
Indefinite  
Conditions.

26.

Conditional sentences in Latin, as in Greek, may contain the statement of a general truth, or may imply repeated action. They are, however, less common than in Greek, and do not require extended treatment.

General or  
Indefinite  
Conditions.

26.

Compare the examples, —

- A. { *ἐάν τι λάβῃ, δώσει,*  
If he receives anything, he will give it,  
*εἴ τι λάβοι, δοίη ἄν,*  
If he should receive anything, he would give it,

with the following: —

- B. { *ἐάν τι λάβῃ, δίδωσι.*  
If he receives anything, he (uniformly) gives it.  
*εἴ τι λάβοι, εἰδίδου.*  
If he received anything, he (uniformly) gave it.

The first pair are Particular, the second, General Conditions. The first refer to a supposed single case; the second imply repeated action, or contain a general truth. In the first, *εἴ* or *ἐάν* really means “if in a particular instance”; in the second, “whenever.”

It is further to be observed, in the second pair of examples, that: —

1. The mood of the Protasis is determined, not by considering the nature of the condition (whether it is taken for granted, contrary to fact, probable, or possible), but by the tense of the Apodosis, according to the principle of the sequence of moods (Rule 5).

2. The verb of the Apodosis is in the indicative, and is a form expressing repeated action.

3. The Protases in both pairs of examples are identical; the verbs of the Apodosis, regularly in the indicative, and expressing repeated action, are what mark the second pair of conditions as general.

Use of  
Moods in  
Indefinite  
Conditional  
Sentences.

27.

General or indefinite conditions require, as a rule, the indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis ; yet the following parallels to Greek usage may be given :—

1. *For present time, —*

**Si quid accipiat, dat.**

2. *For past time, —*

**Accusatores, si facultas incideret, poenis  
adficiebantur.**

Hypotheti-  
cal (or Con-  
ditional)  
Relative  
Sentences.

28.

Conditional relative sentences, or sentences in which the relative may be resolved into **si** with a personal or demonstrative or indefinite pronoun, occur, of course, in Latin. They require, however, no extended illustration.

General conditions appear in the two following forms:—

1. *For present time*,—

Subjunctive with *ἐάν* in Protasis ;  
Present indicative in Apodosis.

2. *For past time*,—

Optative with *εἰ* in Protasis ;  
Past tense of indicative in Apodosis.

Cf., for examples, Rule 26, B.

REM.—An important application of the principles just stated will be seen in the explanation of the employment of moods in temporal clauses. (Cf. Rule 30, 2, p. 48.)

Conditional relative sentences are relative sentences implying a condition. The conditions involved may be particular or general, and differ in no respect from the cases already explained, but are sufficiently illustrated by the following examples:—

A.—*Particular Conditions.*

1. Ἄ μὴ οἶδα, οὐδὲ οἶμαι εἰδέναι =

Εἴ τινα μὴ οἶδα, οὐδὲ οἶμαι εἰδέναι.

What I do not know (if I do not know a thing), I do not think I know.

2. Οὐκ ἂν ἐπεχειροῦμεν πράττειν ἃ μὴ ἠπιστάμεθα =

Εἴ τινα μὴ ἠπιστάμεθα, οὐκ ἂν ἐπεχειροῦμεν πράττειν.

We would not undertake to do what we did not understand.



Concessive  
Clauses.  
29.

V. Concessive clauses are introduced by **quamquam**, **quamvis**, **licet**, **ut**, and **cum**, *although*. Of these conjunctions, the first is regularly joined with the indicative; the others, with the subjunctive.

A. — *Particular Conditions* (continued).

3. "Οτι ἂν βούληται, δώσω =  
'Εάν τι βούληται, δώσω.

I will give him (once) whatever he may wish.

4. "Οτι βούλοιτο, δόην ἂν =  
Εἴ τι βούλοιτο, δόην ἂν.

I would give him (once) whatever he might wish.

B. — *General Conditions*.

1. "Οτι ἂν βούληται, δίδωμι =  
'Εάν τι βούληται, δίδωμι.

I (uniformly) give him whatever he wants.

2. "Οτι βούλοιτο, ἐδίδουν =  
Εἴ τι βούλοιτο, ἐδίδουν.

I (uniformly) gave him whatever he wanted.

Concessive  
Clauses.  
29.

V. Concessive clauses are introduced by εἰ καί, ἐὰν καί, *even if*; and καὶ εἰ, καὶ ἂν (καὶ ἐάν), *although*. They show the same uses of moods as the various forms of the conditional sentences.

Temporal  
Clauses.  
30.

VI. 1. Temporal clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions:—

cum, { *when*, employed most frequently in historical narrative, and then followed by imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive.

ut, { *when*,  
ubi, } *postquam*, *after that*, — with indicative.

antequam, {  
priusquam, } *before that*, *before*.

ubi primum, {  
simul ac, } *as soon as*, *quoties*, *as often as*, with indicative.

quam diu, *as long as*, with indicative.

dum, *while*, always with indicative, except in the **oratio obliqua**.

dum, {  
donec, } *until*, always with the subjunctive.  
quoad, }

Use of  
Mood in  
Temporal  
Clauses.

2. The principle upon which the choice of mood depends may be thus stated (it applies especially to **antequam** and **priusquam**):—

Temporal conjunctions are followed by the indicative to express absolute time, *i. e.* when the event has actually happened or is certain to happen; when they denote rela-

Temporal  
Clauses.  
30.

VI. 1. Temporal clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions :—

ὅτε, ὁπότε, ἡνίκα, ὥς, — *when*.

ἐπεὶ, ἐπειδή, — *after*.

πρίν, — *before*.

ἕως, ἕστε, ἐν ᾧ, — *as long as, until, whilst*.

Use of  
Mood in  
Temporal  
Clauses.

2. All these conjunctions are followed by the indicative to denote absolute time, *i. e.* when the event has actually happened or is certain to happen ; when they denote relative time, *i. e.* when the event has not happened or is uncertain, they introduce semi-conditional clauses (general conditions), and furnish, in the moods employed, a precise parallel to them.

## L A T I N.

**Mood in  
Temporal  
Clauses.**

tive time, *i. e.* when the event has not happened or is uncertain, they introduce semi-conditional clauses, and require the subjunctive.

**Caesar, postquam urbem ceperat, Romam  
redivit.**

Caesar, after he had taken the city, returned to Rome.

**Ne judicaveris, priusquam omnia audiveris.**

Do not judge before you have heard all.

Mood in  
Temporal  
Clauses.

The following is the formula :—

After a primary tense, *ἄν* is annexed to the conjunction, generally forming one word with it, and the verb of the temporal clause is in the subjunctive. After a secondary tense, the verb of the temporal clause is in the optative, without *ἄν*.

*Ταῦτα ἐποιοῦν μέχρι σκότος ἐγένετο.*

They did this until darkness came on (absolute time).

*ὅταν ἅπαντα ἀκούσης, κρίνον.*

When you (shall) have heard all, judge.

*ἐπειδὴ δέ τι ἐμφάγοιεν, ἀνίσταντο.*

After they had eaten something, they would rise up.

*ὁπότε ὥρα εἴη ἀρίστον, ἀνέμενεν αὐτοὺς ἕστε ἐμφάγοιεν.*

Whenever it was time for breakfast, he used to wait for them until they ate something.

*οὐδαμόθεν ἀφίεσαν πρὶν παραθεῖν αὐτοῖς ἄριστον.*

They dismissed them from no place before spreading a meal before them.

REM. — *πρὶν*, besides the constructions mentioned above, may take the infinitive in any tense.

## LATIN.

**Infinitive.**

**31.**

The infinitive and the gerund, taken together, make up all the cases of a verbal noun (cf. English verbal nouns in *-ing*); *e.g.*, —

*Nom.* Errare humanum est.

*Gen.* Errandi cupidus est homo.

*Dat.* Errando aptus est homo.

*Acc.* { Errare homo amat.  
          { Ad errandum homo aptus est.

*Abl.* Errando homo miser fit.

**Participle.**

**32.**

The participle, in Latin, may be the equivalent of the adjective clause, and of the adverbial clause in most of its varieties; *e.g.*, —

*Of an Adjective Clause : —*

**Epistulam sibi commissam (= quae commissa erat) detulit.**

He delivered the letter which had been intrusted to him.

*Of Adverbial Clauses : —*

**Final.**

**Alexander ad Jovem Ammonem pergit, consulturus (= ut consulat) de origine sua.**

Alexander goes to Jupiter Ammon to consult respecting his origin.

**Infinitive.**  
**31.**

The infinitive joined with the neuter article may be used in all the cases ; *e. g.*, —

*Nom.* τὸ ἁμαρτάνειν.

*Gen.* τοῦ ἁμαρτάνειν.

*Dat.* τῷ ἁμαρτάνειν.

*Acc.* (τὸ) ἁμαρτάνειν.

**Participle.**  
**32.**

The participle, in Greek, is constantly employed as the equivalent of the adjective clause, and of the adverbial clause in all its varieties ; *e. g.*, —

*Of an Adjective Clause :—*

οἱ παρόντες (= ἐκεῖνοι οἱ πάρεσιν).

Those who are present.

*Of Adverbial Clauses :—*

**Final.**

\*Ερχομαι ταῦτα ἐρῶν (= ἵνα ταῦτα εἶπω).

I come to say this.

\*Ἦλθε θυγατέρα λυσόμενος.

He came to ransom his daughter.



## L A T I N.

**Participle.****Causal.**

**Nihil affirmo mihi ipse diffidens (= quia diffido).**

I affirm nothing, because I distrust myself.

**Conditional.**

**Ad cenam vocatus (= si vocatus ero) ibo.**

I will go to supper, if I am invited.

**Concessive.**

**Non statim poenis adficiuntur, quotidie delinquentes (= cum delinquant).**

They are not at once punished, although daily at fault.

**Temporal.**

**Hos ego digrediens lacrimis affabar abortis  
(digrediens = cum digrederer).**

Participle.

*Ἡξιὺν ἀδελφὸς αὐτοῦ ὦν (ὦν = ὅτι εἴη).*

Causal.

He demanded, because he was his brother.

Conditional.

<i>εἰ ἔχω,</i>	}	= ἔχων τι,	}	<i>δίδωμι.</i>
<i>εἰ εἶχον,</i>				<i>ἐδίδων ἄν.</i>
<i>εἰ ἔσχον,</i>				<i>ἔδωκα ἄν.</i>
<i>ἐὰν ἔχω,</i>				<i>δώσω.</i>
<i>ἐὰν σχῶ,</i>				<i>δώσω.</i>
<i>εἰ ἔχοιμι,</i>	}		}	<i>διδοίην ἄν.</i>
<i>εἰ σχοίην,</i>				<i>δοίην ἄν.</i>

Concessive.

*καί περ σοφὸς ὦν, βελτίων ἂν γένοιτο.*

Although you are wise, you might become better.

(The concessive participle is commonly joined with *καί περ*.)

Temporal.

All participles denote this relation, and the Greek distinguishes very accurately by the use of the present, perfect or aorist, and future participle, whether the action denoted by the participle is represented as occurring simultaneously with, previous to, or subsequent to, that of the principal verb of the sentence.

*ταῦτα ἀκούσας ἀπήλυνεν.*

When he had heard this, he rode away.

*ταῦτα εἰπὼν ἐπαύσατο (λέγων).*

When he had said this, he ceased (speaking).

## L A T I N.

Temporal.

NOTE. — The use of the perfect participle passive is especially common in Latin, to denote time (such a participle is sometimes called a preliminary participle).

**Caesar Gallis victis (= cum Galli victi essent *or* cum Gallos vicisset) Romam rediit.**

When Cæsar had conquered the Gauls, he returned to Rome.

Temporal.

NOTE. — The aorist participle in Greek may very fitly be called a preliminary participle. The Greek uses the tense of the participle with great accuracy, often employing the aorist when we, in English, should employ a present participle. *E. g.*, —

*English.* Coming up, he asked his name.

*Greek.* προσελθὼν ἤρετο τὸ ὄνομα αὐτοῦ.

33.

The various uses of the participle above enumerated all come under the head of circumstantial; *i. e.* the participle adds a circumstance, more or less important, modifying the principal verb or predicate of the sentence. If this circumstance is essential to the thought, and cannot be omitted without taking away the leading idea from the sentence, the participle is said to be supplementary.

The supplementary participle is used most frequently after the following verbs: —

1. Verbs of judging, feeling, knowing, &c., as the equivalent of a substantive clause. (Cf. Rule 7, 3.)
2. Verbs of beginning, continuing, enduring, ceasing, &c.

NOTE. — The supplementary participle is especially common with *λανθάνω, παύομαι, τυγχάνω, φθάνω.*

*ἐλάνθομεν ἀφικόμενοι.*

We arrived without knowing it.

*ἐπαύσατο λέγων.*

He ceased speaking.

*ἔτυχε παρών.*

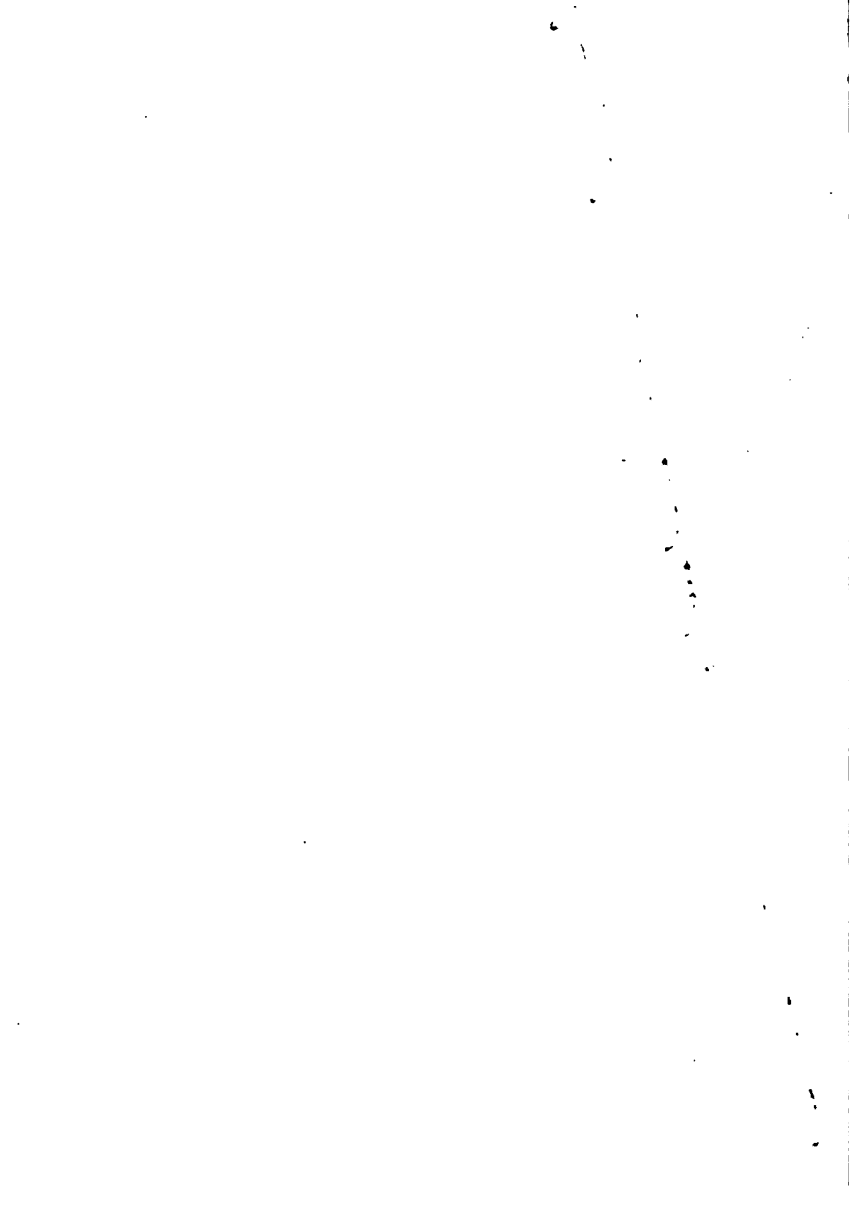
He happened to be present.

*φθάνουσιν τοὺς πολεμίους γενόμενοι ἐπὶ τῷ ἄκρῳ.*

They anticipated the enemy in gaining the height.

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